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"O fortunatos numium sua si bona norint
Agricolae." . . . VIRG.

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AGRICULTURE.

On the best means of applying Plaster of Paris, and of recruiting exhausted land, by Joshua Delaplane, Esq. of Frederick county, Maryland.

(Communicated for re-publication in the American Farmer)

The information you ask on the use of plaster of Paris, the best method of improving exhausted lands, the best mode of making manure, of preserving stock through the winter, as well as the best ploughs, shall be carefully given, according to my experience. Your first inquiry relates to the best mode of using plaster. I would recommend it in all cases to be scattered and harrowed in with the grain of all kinds; this is more absolutely necessary when the land is exhausted, as it aids and nourishes the sprout immediately on its coming up, when it stands most in need. Some roll the grain in plaster. My plan has been, for one hand to sow the grain, while another follows to scatter the plaster, at the rate of one bushel to the acre. Where there are two or three harrows, it requires two hands; but with one harrow, a single person is sufficient for both operations, as he would first sow the grain and then the plaster. On winter grain I would repeat another bushel per acre, the last of February, or the first of March; this would not be necessary after the first year, or after your lands were once plastered; then only sow plaster with the grain. I would recommend harrowing in every kind of grain, and be sure to have your lands harrowed the first time, the way it was ploughed; this will level your ploughing, whereas if you harrow cross ways, it turns up your furrows. It is not necessary to put grain in deep; as a proof, put in some grain six inches deep; it will come up after two or three weeks; examine and you will find the main root, from which it took its growth, gone, and new roots near the surface of the earth succeed; it only requires to be covered. Rye is the best crop to improve land, and at the same time to raise clover. Clover seed ought to be sowed on the rye in February. Rye is the most valuable to raise on exhausted land; its growth is rapid in the spring, secures the clover from the scorching sun, shades the earth, and acts so as to nourish and replenish the land; it is the most certain crop, and as it makes more straw than any other grain, the farmer is enabled to make more and the best

manure. By proper management, this grain can be used in every shape, by having it properly ground, and the best flour separated, it will make good bread, and the balance will make good feed for any kind of stock. It is the best grain for work horses, and is valuable to fatten hogs, but upon this suggestion I expect a host of prejudices against me; experience how ver has taught me not to give way. For example, say you have a pen of hogs with water running through it, to which you give every day one barrel of corn; in this pen you will lose all the manure, as it will be carried off by every rain; you have another pen upon dry land, well littered with long rye straw; after every rain the hogs will cut it up short and make their beds neat, if you have not s raw, leaves will be an excellent substitute; let the number of hogs be equal in both pens; to those in the second pen, feed only half a barrel of corn and two bushels of chopt rye, have two hogsheads near your pen, into which put every day the two bushels of chopt rye, and have them filled up with water and stirred, let it stand twenty-four hours before used, give this to the hogs instead of water; having two hogsheads, by necessary; the time one is used the other will be fit; keep up the hogs in both pens the same time, and when killed, you will find those in the dry pen will weigh ten per cent. heavier, and if I had my choice of the pork I should prefer it; besides, the manure will be valuable the ensuing year. You can safely winter your sheep on your rye field without the least injury to it—and with the greatest advantage to your sheep—I generally let my sheep run on my rye fields until the last of March. I have a field which contains 20 acres, which 10 years ago would not produce more than 10 bushels of corn per acre. I ploughed it up and sowed it with rye and one bushel of plaster per acre; in February I sowed it with clover seed and one bushel of plaster; at harvest I cut 16 bushels of rye per acre; the spring following I sowed it again with one bushel of plaster and mowed that season two tons of hay to the acre, and made 33 bushels of clover seed from the second crop; the spring following I sowed it again, with plaster as before, and cut that year 2 1-2 tons of hay—I then ploughed up the second crop and sowed it with wheat, which produced 28 bushels per acre. I then ploughed up the wheat stubble and sowed with rye, which produced me 25 bush-

els per acre; the spring following I gave it a dressing of manure, ploughed it up and planted it in corn, first rolling the seed in plaster, and when it got up about six inches high, I sowed it broad cast with plaster at the rate of one bushel per acre, off which I gathered 123 barrels of corn (equal to 30 bushels per acre,) the next spring I sowed it with spring barley, (oats would equally prosper) which yielded 32 bushels per acre, which I sold in Georgetown at 150 cts. per bushel; after cutting the barley, I ploughed down the stubble, and sowed it with wheat at the rate of 1 1-2 bushels per acre; and one bushel of plaster. This crop yielded me 33 1 2 bushels per acre; I then ploughed down my stubble and sowed rye, which I cut last summer which is now in the straw, and from it I think I shall get at least 123 barrels or at the rate of 30 bushels per acre; I sowed it last February with clover seed, and intend mowing it the ensuing season.—I have made this statement to prove, that the only sure mode of improving land, is by a regular routine of cropping. You will observe, I did not sow this field every year with plaster, nor is it necessary; lands once well plastered do not need it, as its virtue will not be lost in less than seven years; owing to the scarcity and high price of plaster, for the last two years, I may say I have used none, and I do not believe I suffered for the want of it. Corn cropping ought to be avoided as much as possible upon exhausted lands, unless they become soddy, then they may be worked with advantage, both to the soil and cultivator.

Plough up the sod completely in April, harrow it well the same way that it is ploughed, then furrow it quite shallow, barely to make a furrow to plant your corn—be sure not to disturb the bottom of your sod; when the corn gets up about six inches, harrow it well and plough quite shallow; your corn will not look so promising at first, until the roots penetrate the sod, it will then grow rapidly and will not suffer from drought; as the sod if left down will retain the moisture: all the work on your corn field should be done before harvest, and in no case should corn be followed with winter grain; if you can give your corn ground a dressing of manure, I would sow it with oats, then plough up the oats and sow wheat, plough down the stubble, then sow rye, then clover seed, let the clover remain two years, which would be

making four crops in six years. If you have not manure to dress your corn ground, fallow it the next year for wheat, plough down the stubble, sow rye, then clover seed; be sure never to plough your stubble but once, leaving all covered you possibly can, harrow in all your grain as I have before observed; when you plough clover for wheat, be sure to turn it down, as neatly as possible, the seed turned under will lie the first year without sprouting—this ought to be done between the middle of August and September; after harvest plough down your wheat stubble, sow rye, and the clover seed, turned under the year before, by being brought to the surface, will come up so thick as to need little seed, if any at all. In short, when the ground is well set with clover, you will scarcely ever be compelled to sow more seed; my plan has been to raise a crop of wheat and rye, then let it lie one year in clover, then wheat and rye again, that is to make two crops every two years on the same land, except when I put corn and manure, then I generally take four or five crops running before I give it rest—and would in no case advise land to lie in clover more than one or two years. The best mode of saving manure when it is scarce, and can only be applied to the corn hill, is to keep it in a close heap, to become well rotted; but if you can save enough to give the ground a top dressing, I would prefer hauling it out in the raw state, and let it pass through putrefaction where it is to act; in this way your land will receive the whole benefit; if it is left in the barnyard, every rain will wash away the best of the substance.

I have for some years given my fields a top dressing in the poorest places, whenever the grounds were sufficiently frozen to go on them without injury.

Manure may be called the farmer's gold mine, and ought to be saved in every shape and manner. To increase the quantity, your stables should be kept well littered with straw; to have stables for your stock is equally important to preserve them during the winter, and to accumulate manure; with such protection, good hay will keep them in good order. A farmer should always proportion his stock to his means for subsisting them, and never overstock himself—as one horse well fed will do more work than two badly fed; one cow well fed will give more milk than two badly fed, and one good sheep more wool than two bad ones.—In fine, nothing which a farmer keeps upon his farm, from his horse to his dog, should suffer for food—to make his farm profitable, he should make a little of every kind to sell; he should not fix his mind upon one object of profit alone—Corn or hay, I would not attempt to make for sale upon exhausted lands; after they are restored you may add the sale of

corn and hay to a small extent. A farmer should be certain to have his work done in a proper manner, his ploughing finished and grain sowed in due time and season. When a farmer gets his lands in proper cultivation, he ought to make 1000 bushels of grain to the hand, taking into calculation every thing he raises; in harvest and hay making, he will be compelled to hire hands to save the crop.—During the last seven years I have worked five hands the year round, and my crops (including every kind of grain) have averaged five thousand bushels; this may be doubted; the reader may judge as he pleases, but I am bound to state the truth—our land holders who have most in their power, trust too much to others; they should trust to their own judgment, and see that their plans are properly executed. The best ploughs for land clear of stone are made by Chenoweth of Baltimore; if the land is stony and rough I would recommend Ogle's. On lands that have not been clovered, I would sow one gallon of clover seed per acre, which ought to be done on rye in February—one and a half bushels of wheat, the last week in September or the first week in October—one bushel of rye the 2d or 3d week in September—two bushels of barley or oats as soon as the spring will admit. I have been thus full in giving my opinion: you can adopt as you may think advisable, should any thing I have said prove of advantage, I shall feel myself well awarded.

FROM SINCLAIR'S CODE OF AGRICULTURE. LIVE STOCK.

By far the largest proportion of the territory of almost every country, is devoted to the breeding and support of live stock. In early ages, these were the only criterion of wealth. They became of less consequence, when the culture of grain was first introduced; but their importance afterwards, as the instruments of cultivation, as the means of supplying a large proportion of our food, and as furnishing a variety of our most essential accommodations, combine to render this branch of the inquiry, peculiarly interesting.

In discussing this subject, it is only proposed to offer a few general remarks. 1. On the most desirable properties of live stock; 2. On the principles of improved breeding; and, 3. On the management of stock. To enter fully into details regarding these particulars, would require a volume of no inconsiderable dimensions.

1. On the most desirable properties of live stock.

Under the general term *live stock*, are comprehended the various sorts of domesticated animals, which are employed by man as instruments, for converting to his use, either by labour or otherwise, those productions of the soil, which are not immediately applicable to supply his wants in their natural state. Bakewell expressed the same idea, when he described live stock as machines, for converting herbage and other food for animals into money. But money, in fact, is only the sign of wealth, while live stock are real riches.

The most desirable properties of live stock in

general, may be considered under the following heads 1. size; 2. form; 3. early maturity; 4. hardness of constitution; and, 5. prolific quality; to which may be added, with regard to those sorts which are destined for food; 6, a tendency to grow; 7 a disposition to fatten; and 8, lightness of offal.

1. *Size*.—Before the improvements introduced by Bakewell, the value of an animal was entirely judged of by its bulk; and if a great size could be obtained, more regard was paid to the price the animal ultimately fetched, than to the cost of its food. Of late, since breeders began to calculate with more precision, small or moderate sized animals have been generally preferred, for the following reasons:

1. Small sized animals are more easily kept; they thrive on shorter herbage, and are hence more profitable. 2. Their meat is finer grained, produces richer gravy, has a superiour flavour, and is commonly more nicely marbled, or veined with fat. 3. Large animals are not so well calculated for general consumption, as the moderate sized, particularly in hot weather. 4. Large animals poach pastures more than small ones. 5. They are not so active, require more rest, and collect their food with more labour. 6. Small cows of the true dairy breeds, give proportionately more milk than large ones. 7. Small cattle may be fattened on grass solely, of even moderate quality; whereas the large require the richest pastures, or to be stall-fed, the expense of which exhausts the profit of the farmer. 8. It is much easier to procure well-shaped and kindly-feeding stock of a small size, than of a large one. 9. Small sized cattle may be kept by many persons, who cannot afford either to purchase or to maintain large ones; and by whom the loss, if any accident should happen to them, can be more easily borne. 10. The small sized sell better; for a butcher will give more money for two oxen of twelve stone each per quarter, than for one of twenty-four stone.

In favour of the large sized, it is on the other hand contended—1. That without debating whether from their birth, till they are slaughtered, the large or the small one eats most for its size; yet on the whole, the large one will pay the grazier or farmer who fattens him, as well for its food. 2. That though some large oxen are coarse grained, yet where attention is paid to the breed, (as is the case with the Herefordshire,) the large ox is as delicate food as the small one. 3. That if the small sized are better calculated for the consumption of private families, of villages, or of small towns, yet that large cattle are fitter for the markets of great towns, and in particular of the metropolis. 4. That were the flesh of the small sized ox better, when fresh, yet the meat of the large sized is unquestionably more calculated for salting, a most essential object in a maritime and commercial country; for the thicker the beef, the better it will retain its juices when salted, and the fitter it is for long voyages. 5. That the hide of the large ox is of very great consequence in various manufactures. 6. That where the pastures are good, cattle and sheep will increase in size, without any particular attention on the part of the breeder, large animals are naturally, therefore, the proper stock for such pastures. 7. That the art of fattening cattle, and even sheep, with oil-cake being much improved and extend-

ed the advantage of that practice would be of less consequence, unless large oxen were bred, as small oxen can be fattened with grass and turnips as well as oil-cake; and lastly, that large oxen are better calculated for working than small ones, two large oxen being equal to four small ones, in the plough or the cart.

Such are the arguments generally made use of on both sides of the question; from which it appears, that much must depend upon pastures, taste, mode of consumption, markets, &c. and that both sides have their advantages. The intelligent breeder, however, (unless his pastures are of a nature peculiarly forcing,) will naturally prefer the moderate sized, in the stock he rears.

The late Mr. Davis, of Longleat, one of the ablest agriculturists this country has produced, has given some useful observations on the subject of size. He laments that the attempts which have been made to improve the breeds of cows, horses, and sheep, have proceeded too much upon the principle of *enlarging the size of the animal*; whereas, in general, the only real improvement has been made in the pig, and that was by reducing its size, and introducing a kind that will live harder, and come to greater perfection at an earlier age. His objections indeed to the using of large heavy heeled black horses, in preference to the smart, the active, and the really useful breeds, merit particular attention. In some situations, the steepness of the hills, and the heaviness of the soil, require more than ordinary strength; but in such cases, he maintains, that it would be better to add to the number of horses, than to increase their size. Great horses not only cost proportionably more at first than small ones, but require much more food, and of a better quality, to keep up their flesh. The Wiltshire carter also takes a pride in keeping them as fat as possible; and their food (which is generally barley) is given without stint. In many instances, indeed, the expense of keeping a fine team of horses, amounts to nearly the rent of the farm, on which they are worked. They are purchased young when colts, and sold at five or six years of age, for the London drays and wagons. The expense of their maintenance is very seldom counterbalanced by the difference of price, more especially as such horses are gently worked when young, that they may attain their full size and beauty. In ploughing light soils, the strength of a dray horse is not wanted; and in heavy soils, the weight of the animal does injury to the land.

2. Form.—Though it is extremely desirable, to bring the shape of cattle to as much perfection as possible, yet profit and utility ought not to be sacrificed for mere beauty, which may please the eye, but will not fill the pocket; and which depending much upon caprice, must be often changing.

In regard to form, the most experienced breeders seem to concur in the following particulars: 1. That the form or shape should be compact, so that no part of the animal should be disproportioned to the other; and the whole distinguished by a general fulness and rotundity of shape. 2. That the chest should be broad; for no animal, whose chest is narrow, can easily be made fat. 3. That the carcass should be deep and straight. 4. That the belly should be of a moderate size; for when it is more capacious than common, in young animals, it shows a dis-

eased state, and in older ones, it is considered a proof, that the animal will not return in flesh, in milk, or in labour, the value of the extra quantity of food which it consumes; and. 5. That the head, the bones, and other parts of inferior value, should be as small as is consistent with strength, and with the other properties which the animal ought to possess. The form must likewise be such, as to contain the greatest possible proportion of the finer, compared to the coarser and less valuable parts of the animal. This, by selection, may be attained; and thus the wishes of the consumer may be gratified.

The form of animals has fortunately attracted the attention of an eminent surgeon, (Henry Cline, Esq. of London,) the substance of whose doctrines are—1. That the external form is only an indication of the internal structure. 2. That the lungs of an animal is the first object to be attended to; for, on their size and soundness, the health and strength of an animal principally depend. 3. That the external indication of the size of the lungs, are the form and size of the chest, and its breadth in particular. 4. That the head should be small, as by this the birth is facilitated, as it affords other advantages in feeding, &c. and as it generally indicates that the animal is of a good breed. 5. That the length of the neck should be in proportion to the size of the animal, that it may collect its food with ease; and. 6. That the muscles and tendons should be large, by which an animal is enabled to travel with greater facility.

It was formerly the practice to estimate the value of animals by the size of their bones. A large bone was considered to be a great merit; and a *fine boned* animal always implied great size. It is known that this doctrine was carried too far. The strength of an animal does not depend upon the bones, but on the muscles; and when the bones are disproportionably large, it indicates, in Mr. Cline's opinion, an imperfection in the organs of nutrition. Bakewell strongly insisted on the advantage of small bones; and the celebrated John Hunter declared, that small bones were generally attended with corpulence, in all the various subjects he had an opportunity of examining. A small bone, however, being heavier and more substantial, requires as much nourishment as a hollow one, with a larger circumference.

3. Early maturity.—Arriving soon at perfection, is a material object for the breeder, as his profit must in a great measure depend upon it. Where animals, bred for the carcass merely, become fat at an early age, they not only return sooner the price of their food, with profit to the feeder, but in general, also, a greater value for their consumption, than slow feeding animals. This desirable property greatly depends on a mild and docile disposition; and as this docility of temper is much owing to the manner in which the animal is brought up, attention to inure them early to be familiar, cannot be too much recommended. A tame breed also has other advantages. It is not so apt to injure fences, or to break into adjacent fields; consequently, it is less liable to accidents, and can be reared, supported, and fattened at less expense. The property of early maturity, in a populous country, where the consumption of meat is great, is extremely beneficial to the public, as it evidently tends to furnish

greater supplies to the market; and this propensity to fatten at an early age, is a sure proof, that an animal will fatten speedily at any other period of his life.

4. Hardness of constitution.—In the wilder and bleaker parts of a country, the possession of a hardy and healthy constitution is a most valuable property in stock. Where the surface is barren, and the climate rigorous, it is essential, that the stock bred and maintained there, should be able to endure the severities and vicissitudes of the weather, as well as scarcity of food, hard work, or any other circumstance in its treatment, that might subject a more delicate breed to injury. In this respect, different kinds of stock greatly vary, and it is a matter of much consequence, to select, for different situations, cattle, with constitutions suitable to the place where they are to be kept. It is a popular belief, that dark colours are indications of hardness. In mountain breeds of cattle, a rough pile is reckoned a desirable property, more especially when they are to be kept out all winter. It enables them to face the storm, instead of shrinking from it. Hardy breeds are exempted from various diseases, as having yellow fat, also being *lyery*, or blackfleshed, so injurious to stock.

5. Prolific quality.—By this property is meant, that the females of a breed, both bear more frequently than usual, and also have frequently more than one at a birth. This property runs more strikingly in sub-varieties, or individual families; but by selection, might probably be extended to the whole breed, in the more general acceptance of that word. This quality is partly owing to something in the habits of animals, and partly to their previous good or bad treatment. In breeding, not only the numbers, but the sex of the offspring, in many cases, seem to depend upon the male parent. Two cows produced fourteen females each in fifteen years, *though the bull was changed every year*. It is singular, that when they produced a bull calf, it was in the same year. Under similar circumstances, a great number of males have been produced by the same cow in succession, but not to the same extent.

6. A tendency to grow.—Among the qualities for which thorough-bred cattle and sheep are distinguished, that of being *good growers*, and having a good length of frame, is not the least essential. The meaning of which is, that the animal, should not only be of a strong and healthy constitution, but while it gains flesh and condition, should grow to a proper size. As specimens of rapid growth, a steer of three years old, when well fed, will weigh from 80 to 90 stone, 14lb. to the stone; and a two year old Leicester wedder, from 25 to 28lb. per quarter, immediately after his second fleece is taken from him. Animals who have the property of *growing*, are usually straight in their back and belly; their shoulders well thrown back, and their belly rather light than otherwise. At the same time, a gauntness and paucity of intestines should be guarded against, as a most material defect, indicating a very unthrifty animal. Being *too light of bone*, as it is termed, is also a great fault. A good grower, or hardy animal, has always a middling sized bone. A bull distinguished for getting good growers, is inestimable; but one whose progeny takes an unnatural or gigantic size, ought to be avoided.

9 *A disposition to fatten*—This a great object in animals destined for the shambles. Some animals possess this property during the whole progress of their lives, while in others, it only takes place at a more advanced period, when they have attained their full growth, and are furnished, at the same time, with a suitable supply of food. There are in this respect, other distinctions. 1. Many kinds of cattle and sheep, which have been bred in hilly countries, will become fat on lowland pastures, on which the more refined breeds would barely live; and, 2. Some animals take on fat very quickly, when the proper food has been supplied, and some individuals have been found, even in the same breed, who have in a given time, consumed the least proportional weight of the same kind of food, yet have become fat at the quickest rate. Even in the human race, with little food, some will grow immoderately corpulent. It is probably owing to internal conformation, that this property of rapid fattening is derived.

The advantages and disadvantages of fattening cattle and sheep, at least to the extent frequently practised at present, is a point that has of late attracted much public attention.

But any controversy on that subject, can only arise from want of proper discrimination. Fat meat is unquestionably more nourishing than lean, yet to digest this oily matter, there are required, on account of its difficult solubility, a good bile, much saliva, and a vigorous stomach; consequently none, excepting those who are in the most vigorous state of health, or who are employed in hard labour, can properly digest it. Though fat meat, however, is unfit for general consumption, yet experiments in the art of fattening animals, are likely to promote useful discoveries; and though, in the course of trying a number of experiments, errors and excesses may be committed, yet on the whole, advantage may be derived from the knowledge thus to be obtained. As the bone also gains but little in the fattening animal, and the other offal becomes proportionably less, as the animal becomes more fat, the public has not sustained much loss by over-fatted animals. Few animals are fatted at more expense to the farmer than the hog, yet to kill it when lean, is exceedingly bad economy. An ox or cow, though the little flesh it has may be of good quality, yet presents, when lean, little but skin and bone; and if slaughtered in that state, would neither indemnify the owner for the expense of breeding and maintaining it, nor benefit the public. A coarse and heavy fleshed ox, which would require a very long time, and much good food to fatten, may be slaughtered with most advantage, while rather lean. It is not, however, so much the extent of fat, as the want of a sufficient quantity of lean flesh, of which the consumer complains; for it cannot be doubted, that the lean flesh of a fat animal, is superior in quality, and contains more nourishment, than any other meat.

Here it may be proper to mention, that indication of a tendency to fatten, which is technically called *handling well*. The graziers and butchers in various parts of the kingdom, had recourse to the hand, and the feeling of the skin, or cellular membrane, for ascertaining a disposition to fatten; but since Bakewell directed the public attention so much to breeding, that prac-

tice has become more generally known. Handling cannot easily be defined, and can only be learnt by experience. The skin and flesh of cattle, when handled, should feel soft to the touch, somewhat resembling that of a mole, but with a little more resistance to the finger. A soft and mellow skin must be more pliable, and more easily stretched out to receive any extraordinary quantity of fat and muscle, than a thick or tough one. The rigid skinned animal must, therefore, always be the most difficult to fatten. In a good sheep, the skin is not only soft and mellow, but in some degree elastic. Neither cattle or sheep can be reckoned good, whatever their shapes may be, unless they are first rate handlers.

The improved short horned breed, besides their mellowness of the skin, are likewise distinguished by softness and silkiness of hair. Too great a length, however, ought not to be aimed at, since it is not easy in that case, to preserve a due proportion in the animal, without which it cannot be considered perfect.

7. *Lightness of offal*.—It is also of much importance, that an animal, solely bred for the shambles, should have as little offal as possible, and consequently, a greater proportion of meat applicable as food for man.*

* The great perfection of an animal is, when the dead weight of all the eatable parts, approaches the nearest to the weight of the animal when alive. The following statement of the live and dead weight of a Devonshire ox, aged three years and ten months, will explain the manner in which these accounts are drawn up.

	Stone.
Live weight.	114
Offal.	Stone. lb.
Tallow.	10 6
Hide.	6 3
Head and tongue.	2 9
Heart, liver, and lungs.	2 7
Feet.	1 4
Entrails and blood.	11 13
	35

Carcass, or four quarters. 79

Consequently 10 stones of live weight, produce 6 stones 12 lbs. of dead weight, or butcher's meat. *Durham's Report*, p. 239. The average of other experiments is, from 6 stone 10 lbs. to 6 stone 13½ lbs. of dead weight, to 10 stone of live weight. When an ox is fed for two years in succession, a much higher proportion of dead weight is the result.

In sheep, on an average, from 10 lb. of living weight, 6 lb. 7 ounces of dead weight, convertible into food, may be obtained.—*Durham's Report*, p. 251; consequently, in this respect, cattle are superiour to sheep.

From the Richmond Enquirer.

THE CROPS.

The following letters, one from the county of Charlotte, the other from the state of Georgia, present very opposite, but interesting views of the state of the present crop in different sections of the country. The truth is, our country is so large—1. that if the crops fail in one part, they succeed in another, and thus the superflux of one tends to relieve the deficiency of the other;—2.

It is besides so well intersected with water courses, and assisted by coast navigation, that the breadstuffs of one district are with comparative ease and cheapness transported to any others;—3. We have also this advantage, superiour to almost every other country in the universe, that we have different breadstuffs for the support of our countrymen. If the wheat harvest fails, we may obtain relief from the corn crop, and *vice versa*. Whereas the countries of Europe, depending upon one principal source of supply, are liable to many and serious inconveniences from the failure of their harvest. But famine can scarcely ever approach our doors.

TO THE EDITOR.

Monticello, Geo. Aug. 20. 1819.

The prospects of the agriculturalist were never more flattering in this country, particularly the new purchase of Georgia. Corn and cotton unusually luxuriant, and should the continued rains not produce the rot in the latter, a very abundant crop will be made. Corn, it is supposed, will not command more than \$1 50 per barrel from the stack though last autumn it was worth \$1 50 to \$2 per bushel.

TO THE EDITOR.

Dated Charlotte, Virg. 19. 1819.

In answer to your request of the 10th inst. I propose to give you some account of the very fatal drought in this part of the country, and of our prospects for a crop.

I will premise what I intend to write by informing you, that I have lived on this plantation, in the neighbourhood of Charlotte court-house, forty-one years, the greater part of which time, I have kept a memorandum of remarkable events, such as droughts, uncommon wet spells, great freshets, with early and late frosts, &c. This year has been uncommonly dry, ever since early in May, so that the oat crop has come in very short—I think not half an average crop.

Wheat had so far made itself before the drought became excessive, that the quality is good, but there was not much seeded; there is, however, an average crop of wheat.

The corn crops, unless the refreshing showers we have had now for three days in succession, should do more for it than we can well calculate upon, will not be much over half an average crop, and in some neighbourhoods, as I am informed, (for I go very little from home,) they cannot possibly make bread. I have a son and a nephew just returned from a visit to the Missouri; they say mine is the best crop, that they have seen off the rivers, this side of Lexington, Kentucky, and that in their opinion, numbers of farmers will not make more than a peck of corn to the acre.

Of the tobacco crop, I know not how to speak. I will just describe my own to you. We have not had a good season for planting since early in May, until this week, and it is now quite too late to plant. We have had two slight seasons since May, one the tenth June, the other the sixteenth July. We made out to get 150,000 hills planted; much of it would live about a week and die. There is now about 30,000 hills entirely missing, and from 20 to 30,000 more about

as large as it was when planted. We have planted, watered, and covered a considerable part of what is now growing. We have some right likely tobacco, and think if no disaster happens to it, we shall make better than half a crop. We are beginning to house; it is of good quality.

N. B. I have a plantpatch, an old standing one, on a branch which we have always been able to water in the night or morning, the driest spell I ever saw, until this summer. It has been almost constantly dry, and no chance to water it.

G. S.

FOR THE AMERICAN FARMER.

On Hedging....No. 4.

I came to a conclusive decision about the year 1800, to try an experiment—first forming an idea of such a hedge as my imagination presented as a complete one; then I began to propagate and cultivate with that design, until I have accomplished the object fully to my expectation; first on a smaller scale, but extending it to a more general purpose; I found the utility as well as the practicability of the change from a dead to a living fence.

And as it regards the ornamental part. I had not taken that into consideration, until 1816, when having a field sown with the red chaffed bearded wheat, that kind having a rich looking tint on the approach of harvest, and being hedged, and the hedge newly shorn or trimmed—the lively green hedging of equal height with the enclosed grain, maturing for the sickle, on a piece of elevated ground inclining southeast, and facing the public road, attracted attention, and it may reasonably be supposed, that I was gratified not only with the ornamental appearance, but with the safe guard to so valuable a production, and see my efforts for a series of time crowned with success. But there was another consideration in the outset, that I had in view, that of casting some light on the subject, if successful, for the benefit of others. I was now gratified on finding my *neighbourhood* becoming noted for hedging, and am fully convinced, that ocular demonstration had the desired effect.

A farm well hedged, and carefully trimmed annually, in each district of the country, in public situations, would spread the propagation of hedging abundantly more than all that I shall say on paper: nevertheless I shall state facts as I progressed.

Beginning in 1800, not having patience to begin with the seed or berry, to wait two years, for their vegetation, as my worthy friend and neighbour William Armor had effectually experienced, in his practice of cultivating from the seed of the Newcastle thorn, I had recourse to another expedient, that hastened the business, by digging up the natural stocks.

After cutting away the top, with a handsaw, near to the ground, the root was readily taken up with a grubbing hoe. Those stocks were such as have arisen from the birds dropping the seed in waste land, that have remained a number of years out of cultivation, and on the outskirts of timber land, where the plough has not disturbed them, they get some growth. I was

not particular in size, but took them from the size of a goose quill, to an inch or even two inches in diameter, where I cut off the tops; after trimming the long spreading roots to a moderate size, there was about one hundred perches planted that spring, as early as the frost would admit. The season being moderately wet, they all grew without further trouble, and put out a number of suckers or sprouts, from each stump, shooting from six inches to a foot that season, forming a thick head from the strong stocks, and the others in proportion.

I readily saw that I had ground work for a hedge, not yet knowing that any thing further was requisite, till they came to maturity; therefore I let them shift for themselves two or three years, or longer, until they became matted about the roots with grass, by which mistake, my hedge was retarded in growth considerably. My neighbour William Armor rectified me in that mistake. After ploughing two or three furrows towards the roots, by the assistance of the spade, the grass was all completely covered, and this ought to be done by digging from the bottom of the furrow, to throw up clay or the under soil, that is not so subject to produce grass or weeds. By this means, my hedge assumed a thrifty appearance that season, and no doubt, grew as much as it had done the two years previous. After this I renewed the dressing every year, until the hedge had obtained a sufficient strength, to put into form for its future destiny. This part of the business I had not determined on, as I found a variety of opinions prevailing, some for plashing but most for an upright standard, as nature had formed it to take that course. I was undetermined two years, which course to pursue, and waited until I could satisfy my own judgment, by observation on the various attempts making by those who had been at the business before me.

Nature seems to direct the greatest flow of sap upwards in all productions; these assume an upright posture, the thorn amongst others has that propensity in its natural growth, as the upper branches take the lead of the sap, and grow accordingly, the lower branches become weaker in proportion, and ultimately the undermost decline, as the upper overspread and flourish. This is evident universally with that shrub, as well as many others; and in every attempt at raising a hedge in this way, even if cut to prevent their rising too high, they still make a vigorous effort to shoot out at the top, and the upper part of the hedge spreads too wide in every instance that I have seen, and consequently became weak below, from the branches growing too much spread, being open spaces near the ground.

But, finally, I preferred plashing, or laying the main stock or body of the thorn, which I have uniformly adopted in every case, although I should be pleased to see a further attempt at the upright plan, although I should treat it something different, if ever I make the attempt, and if I do the result shall be known.

FOR THE AMERICAN FARMER.
ON THE CULTURE AND PROPERTIES OF THE
GUINEA GRASS.

Brownsville, S. C. Sept 2, 1819.

Dear Sir,—I enclose you some of the Guinea

Grass Seed, but am not certain that the quality is good. In the year 1815, some seed were procured from Judge Toulmin, of the (now) Alabama Territory. In the month of March, 1816 these seed were planted in drills, about three feet apart, and tolerably thick in the drill. The ground was very rich and in good order, containing about the eighth of an acre. The seed did not sprout above the ground until about the first of May; the sprouts and shoots were not of strong growth. I had them thinned to one foot in the drill, and well hoed twice by the tenth of June; at this time the weather was very wet and rainy for at least fifteen days; at the end of which time my grass was at least three feet high, and continued to grow very well afterwards during the whole year, which was, what is called a *wet year*. The blades and stalks of the grass continued tender and rich, and were eaten freely by horses and cows, until about the last of July, when the stalks became large and the blades harsh, and were not relished so well by either horses or cows. I did not attempt to make hay of this grass, intending only to get a good stock of seed. The grass grew nearly ten feet high, and completely covered the ground. Some bunches I cut off as near the ground as I possibly could, in the month of August, and so rapid was the growth, that in September the bunches so cut off, were equally as high as any other bunches. There was no appearance of the grass seeding, until about the first of October. No frost fell this year sufficient to kill vegetation, until November, and I saved about half a peck of seed. The seed having lain a long time in the ground this year without sprouting, I believed that I ought to have planted them earlier. In the month of February, 1817, I again planted the same lot of ground, as I had done the year before. The grass sprouted early in April, and was entirely destroyed by frost. There came up, however, some plants from the seed which had remained on the ground throughout the winter; these I transplanted (but did not separate the roots) into the richest part of the lot; it grew badly this year, not exceeding five feet in height; some of it seeded this year, much earlier than it had done the last; but having only a few bunches, only a few seed were saved. On the fifteenth of March, 1818, I planted the same lot of ground, after having it well manured; the seed were bad, and I had again only a few bunches of grass growing; I therefore delayed gathering the seed as late as possible, thinking they might come to full perfection; but in this I was deceived. For, upon gathering the seed, I found only a few of them good. In the month of March last, I again drilled a small spot of ground, and very few of the seed sprouted, but some seed which had dropped from the stalk last autumn sprouted; these I have transplanted into my garden, where they grow well. When I gather seed this year, I shall endeavour to procure good seed by shaking the stalks daily over some sheet or other cloth, by which means, the ripe seed may be gathered, as they come to perfection. I am induced to believe, from the experiments which I have made, that the seed remain upon the stalk a very short time after they are ripe. I should have mentioned heretofore, that the two last years have been unusually dry in this part of the country, to which circum-

stance I attribute my want of success. I hope that this grass may flourish with you, but I fear your climate may not suit it well. I think, if you cultivate the grass, it would be advisable for you to adopt the plan recommended by Dr. S. Brown or as you would obtain tobacco plants from a plat of ground. I have endeavoured every winter to prevent the roots of the grass being killed by frosts, but have not succeeded. The roots are very large and strong, spreading to some distance, and not easily rotted. It impoverishes land very much. I cannot, however, forbear mentioning, that when the seasons are suitable, the seed good, and the land rich, that no grass can be cultivated, which will so amply reward the labour of the husbandman.

OCCASIONAL EXTRACTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE AMERICAN FARMER

Dated, Chester, S. C. Sept. 11, 1819.

As cattle, the dairy, and the like, are interesting subjects to the farmer, we would wish to know sometimes what is *improper* for milch cows, as well as what is proper. We have been informed, for instance, that *oats* in grain or meal, and even *oat straw* were *injurious* to cows giving milk, causing the milk to dry up, as the common expression is, or to diminish in quantity, even when they are well fed with it. What little experience I have had, appears rather to confirm the idea. Perhaps yourself or some of your correspondents, from better experience, can confirm or refute the idea.

As I have seen by a little experience, and have been informed by others, that there is a way which appears rather singular, to expedite the growth of young fruit trees, more particularly the apple-tree, while in the nursery, and not having yet seen mention made of it in your paper, I will give you a general idea of it, and perhaps some other person, or myself, can give you a more particular description if necessary.

The trees growing from the seed in consequence, as I suppose, of the small quantity of root, grow slowly; the tree becomes so hard, or stunted, as is commonly said, they for ever after grow slow. In the spring after they are planted, or when they are two years old, bend them all down, by laying rails, or the like, on the trees, lengthwise the rows; cause them to bend pretty short near the ground, and they will put forth a shoot at the bend, that will be larger the first autumn, than the main stock would have been, which may be proved by leaving some in their original state and position; but the old stock should be cut off, as well as any supernumerary shoots, during the first summer after being bent in the spring. I send you this, in the way of intimation and inquiry, so that if not yet within your knowledge, some person better qualified than myself, may be applied to, to give you information on the subject, as to the reason of the thing; but as I

think the innovation is useful, it ought to be generally known.

I have not entirely read all your papers, yet have seen no good description of *cheese-making*; if you have not published any, I hope some of your correspondents will communicate some useful essays on the subject.

P. S. I omitted to mention to you, that the crops in this part are very abundant, particularly wheat and corn—price of wheat, 75 cents per bushel; corn not yet gathered, but expected to be from 37 to 50 cents.

DOMESTIC INDUSTRY.

Baltimore, Sept. 21, 1819.

MR. SKINNER,

Having occasion to go some distance, one day last week into the country, I called to see an old friend, who insisted upon my dining with him. The dinner consisted of excellent ham and chickens, far superior to any brought to market; yet several excuses and apologies were made for the "homely dinner." It was added, that if I would be so kind as to stay over night, I should dine next day on some excellent mutton, as preparations were making for killing a very fat merino sheep that evening. On expressing my surprise to hear that a merino sheep was to be killed, my friend observed that they were no better to him than others; that he had given some years ago, from one to three hundred dollars a piece for the breed, expecting to make a fortune by them; but like many other projects, it ended in smoke:—instead of a dollar and a half which he was made to believe he would get for their wool, he could now with difficulty procure fifty cents. On asking who purchased it, he said that he understood some bought it for exportation, and small quantities were applied to domestic manufactures; but, added he, I believe that business is nearly done over. I then asked, why he did not get his own wool manufactured for the use of his own family? He replied, it was too much trouble, and when done, did not look so well as imported cloth. When I want a coat, continued he, I just go to the store, buy the cloth and pay for it. Pray what did you pay for the cloth in that coat? I think, said he, it was eleven dollars;—yes, two yards and a quarter make my coat, and the outside of this one cost me twenty-four dollars and seventy-five cents. Here my friend was reminded by his wife, that he had forgotten, the last time he was in town, to purchase the silk dress he had promised her. My dear said the husband, I did not forget it, but money is become so very scarce, that really I had it not to spare. This apology excited a female nod of the head, expressive of but little satisfaction. I therefore jocosely observed, that money must be scarce where merino wool sold for fifty cents per pound, and broad cloths cost eleven dollars per yard; and, to keep clear of silk

dresses, immediately I gave the conversation a different direction.

As I rode home in the evening, I could not get the merino out of my head. I strongly suspected that the family I had dined with, was but a *miniature of the country at large*; that the fifty cent wool, the eleven dollar broad cloth, the promised silk dress;—and above all, the death of the merino sheep, would go a considerable length in accounting for the present state of things amongst us.

Should you, Sir, be of the same opinion, which I will take for granted, if you give this a place in your valuable paper, you shall hear again from, Yours, respectfully,
COGITATIVUS.

Extracts from a Compendious Dictionary of the Veterinary Art.

(Continued from No. 25. p.—195.)

BLACK LEG OR QUARTER EVIL.—A disease incident to young cattle, from one to two years old. Many names have been given to this disease, just as unmeaning as that we have chosen from them: the symptoms also have been variously described. All writers seem to attribute it to putting young animals into rich pasture too hastily, whereby a redundancy of blood is generated, and the system too powerfully excited. The first symptoms are an appearance of heaviness and disinclination for food. On examining the animal, a swelling may be observed in some part of the body, generally beginning in the legs and proceeding upward. On feeling the swelling, a crackling may be perceived under the skin; the swelling sometimes extends to the loins or belly. In some cases the joints are particularly affected, causing severe lameness. Bleeding is generally allowed to be the essential remedy; and, though the disease most commonly proves fatal, it appears probable that bleeding largely on the first appearance of the symptoms will often prove effectual. Clater recommends the following drink, as a purgative.

"Take Glauber's salts from eight to twelve ounces, according to the animal's strength.
White antimonial powder, one dram.
Camphor, one dram.
Aniseed and ginger of each one ounce.
Treacle, four table spoonfull.—Mix for one drink."

It is needless, perhaps, to point out the inconsistency of giving a large dose of ginger for a complaint so highly inflammatory, in which light the author certainly considers it; for he adds, "this will be found a powerful drink in removing those inflammatory symptoms, which attend diseases of this kind." He recommends, "if the beast is not purged in the space of twelve or twenty hours, to give half the dose every night and morning until the desired effect is obtained." The same author directs, after the animal has been purged, a curious farrago composed of alum, nitre, bark, aniseeds, carawayseeds, treacle, and vinegar; if the fever still increase, this wonderful drink is to be omitted, and a powder given every morning and evening, consisting of

Tincture of opium, } of each two drams.
Camphor, and }
Antimonial powder, }
Nitre, one ounce.

We are then directed to rub the swollen parts with the following mixture:

Nitre, four ounces.
Vinegar, one quart.
Oil of vitriol, one ounce.
Tincture of opium, two ounces.
Camphorated spirit of wine, four ounces.—Mix.

We are then told, if the tumefied parts are gradually

proceeding to a state of suppuration, a mixture which he calls *emollient oils*, is to be used, containing several highly stimulating ingredients: such as oil of turpentine, water of ammonia (spirit of sal ammoniac), opodeldoc, and tincture of opium. To finish this elaborate medical discipline, we have a prescription for the soreness of the mouth which accompanies this disease, composed only of four ingredients, viz. burnt alum, bole, salt, and vinegar: Mr. Clater then points out the preventive measures to be adopted. As soon as the disease makes its appearance upon one of the herd, let them all be brought into the fold yard, and lose from two to three quarts of blood according to their size and strength. Let them be kept there till next morning, and then take one of the following drinks." The author does not inform us which of these drinks is to be preferred, and some readers may perhaps feel puzzled in making a choice, as each contains one very palatable ingredient: in the first, one ounce of brown sugar candy is dissolved, and in the other a glass of common gin! Many farmers would doubtless prefer the latter. Mr. Skerrett gives rather a different description of the disease. "The disease begins on a joint of the leg or thigh, and sometimes in the foot; it is first discovered by a lameness of the animal, and the part when examined discovers a crackling and swelling; showing that air has made its way through the skin and flesh. Its progress is to rise upward, and to spread over that quarter which is first seized; when it rises to the back and kidneys, it then proves quickly fatal." "Bedding," he adds, "is the principal remedy to be depended on, and should be carried to the same extent as in active inflammation; the state of the parts is not to be omitted, and scarifications so as to unload the vessels will be of great service; after this the parts should be dressed with equal parts of common salt and nitre, finely powdered, by which means suppuration will be induced, and a check put to the disorder." He advises at this period fomentations; and observes, that clearing the bowels must not be omitted. His preventive remedy consists in giving the following powder two or three times in the year, to young cattle placed in rich pastures, and bleeding each time:

Fowers of Sulphur, four to six ounces.
Nitre one ounce.
Grains of Paradise, two drams.

Mr. John Lawrence, in his Treatise on Cattle, observes, in speaking of this disorder, "prevention of this malady, is the only cure worth notice: because after the attack, the very nature of the disease renders all remedy either uncertain or of very little profit, even if successful, on account of the expense of time and money. With this view the young cattle should not be pushed so forward in condition; and indeed the same precaution may be useful in a moderate degree with respect to the full aged. A piece of short or inferior keep should be reserved as a digesting place, in which the cattle may be occasionally turned to empty and exercise themselves." Mr. Lawrence advises also an alternative powder, composed of sulphur and antimony, being given daily for a month, and two rows or setons in each breast. We think Mr. Lawrence's advice upon this subject very reasonable, but consider the medical part of it unnecessary. In the 5th volume of the Farmer's Magazine another plan is communicated by a practical farmer, suggested to him by a skilful blacksmith, which he asserts has often succeeded; but as the paper is anonymous, and the plan apparently absurd, we do not feel inclined to credit his assertion. "The first thing he did was to take a little blood from the neck: he then pulled the skin from the flesh on the side that was most pained, still keeping the beast walking as much as possible; he then caused cold water to be poured in large quantities on the part affected, still rubbing and keeping the skin loose on the affected part; he then made three cuts with a pen-knife, each two inches long, into which he rubbed salt and water; in this manner he continued four hours; at one time driving him, then pouring on

water, loosening the skin from the flesh, and rubbing in salt; by this time he was not near so crippled, and began to take his food; we were ordered however to keep him in motion all night, and in the morning he was well for his food, and never had a return of the complaint." The practical farmer says, he followed the blacksmith's practice with success, only, instead of pouring water on the part, he put a rope about the beast's head, and made him swim in a deep pool; he then drove him about and gave from half an ounce to an ounce of laudanum; but never opened the skin. He observes, that he never knew an animal recover from this disease when left wholly to nature, and that it is more difficult to cure in the hind than in the fore-quarters. The fatality of this disease renders it a subject of great importance to breeders of cattle, as well as to farmers in general: this consideration has induced us to treat of it at some length; it may not be amiss however, before we conclude this subject, to describe another method of preventing this disorder, which however absurd it may appear, is said to be generally practiced in Cheshire and Staffordshire with success. "The animal having been properly secured, an incision is made in each foot, beginning at the division of the claws, and extending from two to three inches upward; a blueish vessel [vein] is then seen which is to be drawn out by passing a crooked needle under it, and cut off with scissors. The wound is first dressed with escharotic powder, afterward with digestive ointment." In what manner this curious operation can prevent the disease in question, it is not easy to imagine; if they who confide in its efficacy take care not to feed their young cattle too hastily, or, as Mr. Lawrence expresses it, "not push them too forward in condition," the mystery will cease. Such a variety of names have been conferred on this disorder, that it appears necessary to give a list of them, which is taken from Mr. John Lawrence's Treatise on Cattle:—*Shewt of blood—Fomit of Blood—Blood in the Back—Blood in the legs, or Cruteuch—Blane in the Tongue, or, Oveflow of Blood—Striking in, or Rising of the Blood—Higam, or Iron Striking—Joint Murrain, or Garget—Black Quarter—Quarter-Evil—Black Leg.* [To be continued.]

Internal Improvement.

ROANOKE AND TAR RIVERS.

Mr. Fulton, the State Engineer, has returned from his visit to the Roanoke and Tar rivers, and has furnished a report on each to the Commissioners of Navigation. In the prosecution of the works on the former he suggested some important considerations for the Navigation Company; and in respect to the latter, he points out to the Company, the best mode of effecting the proposed navigation; in which he finds little difficulty.

Mr. Fulton set out on Wednesday, for Cape Fear; and after inspecting the works carrying on there, he will visit the Pedee, Yadkin, Catawba, &c. after which he will probably take a view of our sea coast.

Since writing the above paragraph, we have been favoured with the following particulars in relation to the Engineer's late visit to Tar river.

The President and Directors, accompanied by Mr. Fulton, descended the river from Lewisburgh to the Little Falls at Battle's Mills, one mile below the Great Falls. The low state of the river afforded an opportunity of observing every difficulty to be surmounted. Many parts of the river are perfectly clear of obstacles, presenting fine still deep water, navigable at all seasons; and a few locks and dams being erected in the other parts, and the logs and rocks removed, will render the whole navigable. And as the erection of the dams will afford fine situations for valuable mills, the disposal of them would go towards defraying the expense of the work. The distance from Lewisburgh to these falls

by land is 37 miles, by water it is estimated to be fifty.

From the head of the most important fall, (Goodsons) a canal may be cut into the river below all the falls, at a much less expense than has been hitherto estimated. From thence to Tarborough the river was not examined, but it is understood to be passable by boats at most seasons of the year; and beyond Tarborough the character of the company does not extend. It is believed, however, that there are obstacles in the river between Tarborough and Washington, which must be removed before the river can be navigable with ease. And it is to be regretted, that local prejudices should have hitherto prevented the citizens of these towns, and of that section of country, from joining cordially in effecting so desirable a work. We trust, however, that time and more correct information, will produce a change of opinion on this subject.

We are pleased to hear that the citizens of Nash county, are becoming more favourably disposed towards the opening of the river, from a belief that the plan is practicable. Mr. Lamon, one of the representatives of that county, on passing his house not only showed the Engineer and Directors much attention, but joined and accompanied them to the Falls, indeed it is confidently hoped, that a project so big with importance to so large a district of country, will not fail for want of the necessary support for carrying it into effect.—*Raleigh Reg.*

New invented Wheel Carriage.

Liverpool, July 2.

We have witnessed, within this day or two, the newly invented four wheeled carriage, which lately excited so much interest in Scotland. Upon inquiry, we find that its properties are, cheapness in the construction, ease in the travelling, and nearly a total evasion of duties and tolls. By a great mechanical improvement in the axles, one horse performs the work of two with the most perfect ease; and, by a singularly ingenious contrivance, the horse can be, in the event of an accident, instantaneously relieved from the carriage by the will of the driver. The easy riding in the carriage arises from the peculiar formation of the perch, and superior to every other mode in the elastic effect, as in every other way the rider is subject to continual jerks; but in this, the effect is a complete swinging or canting motion, elevating and depressing, so that under any shock that it can be liable to, it would be impossible to unseat the driver. This singular vehicle has undergone some repairs by some of the coachmakers of this town, whom we do not particularize, as it would subject us to the advertisement duty. The following paragraph is on the same subject.

On the 8th instant a commercial traveller, from London, in a newly invented four wheeled carriage, was stopped at the toll-bar of Brachelston, at the head of Greenock on account of refusing to pay the rate exigible for a gig. He offered the sum payable for a wagon; but, as this was refused by the toll-keeper, the matter was brought before the justices of the peace, who decided that the carriage was not a gig; that it was only liable to payment of the rate offered; and found the toll-keeper amenable in expenses. [Scotch paper.]

Papers communicated to the Agricultural Society of Virginia.

NOTTOWAY COUNTY, Feb. 15, 1819.

Dear Sir,

Feeling a great desire, that the use of clover and plaster should be more hastily brought into general use, by way of promoting the improvement of our much injured soil, I transmit you an easy method of applying the plaster, perhaps not known to the Society, which is a project of my own, and perhaps may be much improved.—The plan is as follows:—Have a common pair of tumbrel cart wheels, the length of axletree to suit the box or width of rows or beds,

(my beds are six feet wide) and have a pair of shaves pinned on the top of the axletree, to project over the axletree 2 1-2 feet behind; to the ends of those shaves to be swung with a rope, or a pair of traces, a box about a foot from the land, made as follows: six feet long, one foot deep, fifteen inches wide at top and eight inches at bottom, with two partitions, so as to make the box in three equal divisions, the bottom to be covered with wire, wove a good size finer than a hand sieve, for getting cockle out of wheat, that nailed to the bottom of the box, and supported by a narrow strip of wood lengthwise, and several crosswise, so as to regulate the sifting of the plaster per acre; a notch to be cut in the edge of the middle division, one inch deep and three wide, to rest a staff on, to keep it in the right place, which staff is to be handled by a fellow walking after the box, and striking the farther side from him with the end of the staff, and the side of the box next to him, with a pin fixed in the staff which will be described hereafter. This box is to be carried by a gentle horse carrying the wheels and box, rode by a small boy to guide him, and the hand attending the box, tapping the box fast or slow, hard or easy, so as to regulate the sowing of the plaster. The staff to be made as follows:—about 7 feet long, the size of a common hoe helve, except at the end resting on the box, about 10 inches of which may be 2 inches diameter, with a pin fixed in it, so as when the hand using it, draws it back, to strike the farther side from him; the pin may strike the side next to him; this may be fixed in by boring an auger through the staff, but very moderately crossed, and fixing a good sturdy pin fast in it, to show about two inches, and by this means the staff gives two strokes to the box instead of one, which sifts the plaster much more regular. I am afraid you may not understand my awkward manner of describing this instrument, but you may be well assured, it answers a very good purpose, as the labour is very light, the plasters saved from blowing away, put in more regular and with much more despatch, where the land lies well and clear of stumps, &c. A hand, horse and boy, can plaster from 10 to 12 acres per day. If the project cannot be understood from this, I hope shortly to attend one of the meetings, when I hope to have the honour of becoming a member of the society, or I will have a box made, and sent for the use of the society.

Your's respectfully,

EDMUND IRBY.

P. S. I send you a small sample of the staff cut out of a card, and a sample of the wire to cover the bottom of the box: only a half bushel to be put in the box at once.

E. I.

To the Secretary of the Agricultural Society of Virginia.

THE FARMER.

BALTIMORE, FRIDAY, SEPTEMBER 24, 1819.

"GO THOU AND DO SO LIKEWISE."—Our sister states, on the right and on the left, are vying with each other in giving encouragement to agriculture, Maryland, the centre of communication, instead of gathering light from all her surrounding sisters, and making herself the focus of enlightened policy, seems satisfied to continue the victim of narrow jealousies; torn by local conflicts and party strife, her several sections seem to have realized the fate of the *Kilkenny cats*, actuated by an eternal spirit of animosity, they have fought against each other without any other benefit or satisfaction, than that—of eating each other up.

Hog laws, and goose laws, and lottery laws, and bank laws, and insolvent laws, appear to make up the Alpha and Omega of the Maryland statute book. Is it not time that something was done, for the farming and planting interest, by the, so called, representatives of this most substantial class of citizens? We hope that hereafter, when men offer their services for

that most dignified (when well exercised) office of law-making, the people of the state will inquire not so much—*are you a federal, an aristocrat? a republican, a democrat?* but, what will you do to aid the cause of the plough? What will you do to give intelligence and profit to the labours of the agriculturist? Will you appropriate a part of the revenues of the state, as premiums to be distributed in each county, as an incitement to exertion and a premium to excellence in all the branches of rural economy. In the state of New York, ten thousand dollars have been divided amongst the agricultural societies of the different counties, to be distributed in this way, and the rivalry thus excited promises to give a new aspect to the whole state, and the money thus taken from the treasury of the people, will be repaid ten fold by the increased intelligence, wealth and power of the state.

The following extract from that valuable publication, *The Albany "Plough Boy,"* will give the Marylander some idea of the effect of legislative encouragement in one county alone. Why might not every county in Maryland make a little exhibition?

Rensselaer Agricultural Fair.

A public Fair, for the purchase and sale of horses, and cattle and all animals, articles and goods, the growth, produce, and manufactures of all countries, will be held on the common, south of Hoosick street, and east of River street in the city of Troy, on the second Tuesday of October next, commencing at 10 o'clock A. M. and to be continued for two days, under the superintendence of the Board of Managers of the Agricultural Society of the county of Rensselaer. And that conformably to a resolution of the said Board, premiums will be paid on the animals mentioned in the following catalogue, which shall have been raised within the county, or owned within it, by the person presenting it, for the term of the last preceding six months. And on the cloths, as stated in the said catalogue, which shall have been manufactured in the said county, from wool or flax raised within it, and which may be offered for sale or shown at the said Fair, to wit:

For the best yoke of fat Oxen,	\$20
best yoke of working oxen,	10
second best do. do.	5
best fat cow,	10
best milch cow,	10
second best do.	5
best bull, not exceeding 4 years old,	10
second best do.	5
best heifer, 2 years old last spring,	10
best heifer, 1 year old last spring,	5
best six calves raised for stock on any one farm, by one person,	16
second best do. do.	4

HORSES.

For the best-stud horse,	15
best breeding mare,	10

SHEEP.

For the best flock of fine wool sheep, not less than 20,	10
best do. common do. do.	10
best pair of ewes of the Leicester breed,	10
best ram of do.	10
best Merino ram,	10
best common do.	5

HOGS.

For the best boar, not less than one year old,	10
best sow, not less than two years old,	5
best fat hog, dead or alive,	10

WOOLLEN CLOTHS.

For the best piece of superfine broadcloth, not less than 20 yards long and 6-4 broad,	25
best piece of narrow cloth, not less than 20 yards long and 3-4 broad,	10
best piece of fine cassimere, not less than 20 yards long and 3-4 broad,	10

best piece of sattinette, not less than 20 yards long and 3-4 broad, 10

LINEN CLOTHS.

For the best piece of linen shirting, not less than 25 yards long and 3-4 broad, 5
best piece of diaper, not less than 25 yards long and 3-4 broad, 5

The foregoing premiums will be paid in suitable pieces of plate of the value of the several premiums, or in cash as determined by the managers. The society will meet at Barney's on the first day of the Fair, at half past 8 o'clock, precisely, to make arrangements. The board of managers and officers of the society will meet at the Flag-staff, on the Fair ground, at 10 o'clock precisely, on the first day of the Fair.

The several competitors for premiums on cloths, are notified to deposit their several specimens or pieces of cloth, at the store of Albert Richards in River street, near Gray's tavern, at or before twelve o'clock of the first day of the Fair, where a suitable room is provided for their reception—and no competitor will be admitted after that hour. A list or catalogue of the several articles and of the names of the owners respectively, will be made and kept by Mr. Richards, but will not be disclosed to the judges, or to any other person, until after they all have been examined by the judges, and the premiums determined.

The judges of awards will proceed at 12 o'clock of the first day of the Fair, to examine the several articles offered for premium. And the competitors for premiums and the members of the society, are also respectively noticed to meet at the Flag-staff, at ten o'clock precisely, on the second day of the Fair, and will form a procession from thence to the court-room in the court-house, or to Mr. Coe's church, as may hereafter be determined by the committee of arrangement, and of which notice will be given on the morning of that day or before, where the judges of awards will make their report, and the premiums be delivered or paid, and where, immediately thereafter, an election for the officers of the society, for the ensuing year, will be held agreeably to the provisions of the constitution.

The Recording Secretary and Treasurer will attend at the Flag-staff and booth on the Fair ground from 10 o'clock, A. M. to 12; and from 1 to 4 o'clock, P. M. for the purpose of admitting members to the society, and delivering diplomas.

Those persons who have had subscription papers in charge, are requested to return them to the Recording Secretary or Treasurer, on or before the first day of the Fair.

(Signed) GEORGE TIBBITS, Pres't.

HENRY HOYLE, Rec. Sec'y.

Troy, Aug. 19, 1819.

N. B. As the funds of the society have considerably increased since the above selections for premiums were made, it will therefore be recommended by the committee to the board of managers, to award premiums on animals and articles not enumerated, which may be deemed meritorious.

*** The Printer wants three or four lines to fill this page—I give him, therefore, the following Soliloquy, to be read and said by each delinquent Subscriber:—I owe unto the Editor of the American Farmer, 4 dollars for the year's advance, which 4 dollars I will positively enclose to him by the next mail, at his risk, or pay them to my neighbour, the Postmaster, on his account; or, not liking his paper, I will order him to stop it.

PRINTED EVERY FRIDAY,

FOR

JOHN S. SKINNER,

BALTIMORE.